DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 221 940 EA 015 032

AUTHOR Lorenz, John A.
TITLE Staff Renewal. Occasional Paper.
INSTITUTION Illinois Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Normal.
PUB DATE 82
NOTE 56p.
AVAILABLE FROM Publications, Illinois Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Illinois State University, Normal, IL 61761 ($3.00).

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS Adult Education; Adult Learning; Educational Change; Educational Environment; *Educational Planning; Elementary Secondary Education; Formative Evaluation; *Inservice Teacher Education; Organizational Change; Organizational Theories; *Program Development; *Staff Development; Training Methods

ABSTRACT

This guide to effective staff development planning draws extensively on the literature to discuss the concepts crucial at each stage of the planning process. An introductory section reviews the characteristics of adult learners (including what they want to learn and how they prefer to learn it), touching on adult development, learning and personality styles, and adult learning and learning projects. The next five chapters cover the five stages of the staff development or staff renewal process: readiness, planning, training, implementation, and evaluation. The readiness stage involves establishing an organizational climate supportive of the renewal process, and requires an understanding of school climate, coupling theory, and organizational theory. The conversion of adult learners' needs into staff development objectives is the focus of the planning stage. Programs relating to knowledge, skills, and attitudes must be incorporated into the training stage, which should include five frequently neglected components: theory presentation, modeling, practice, feedback, and coaching. Aspects of commitment and organizational change theory underlie the success of the implementation stage. The final stage, evaluation, depends on personalized, quantitative methods and careful data collection. The document concludes with a discussion of the interrelationships among the five stages and urges development of a self-renewing program. (Author/PGD)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED221940

STAFF RENEWAL

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Donald S. Kachur

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Occasional Paper
By John A. Lorenz

EA 015 032

Illinois Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

STAFF RENEWAL

ILLINOIS ASSOCIATION FOR SUPERVISION
AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT OCCASIONAL PAPER

JOHN A. LORENZ

DIRECTOR OF INSTRUCTION
NILES WEST HIGH SCHOOLS
TOWNSHIP
SKOKIE, ILLINOIS 60077

Illinois Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development,
c/o Department of Curriculum and Instruction
Illinois State University, Normal, Illinois 61761

Copyright © 1982 by the Illinois Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopy, recording, or any information retrieval system, without permission in writing from the publisher.

The materials printed herein are the expressions of the author and are not necessarily a statement of policy of the Association.

Copies $3.00 each. Send requests to Illinois A.S.C.D., Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Illinois State University, Normal, IL 61761.

FOREWORD

The IASCD has decided to focus on an area of education that holds great promise and potential for improving the quality of education in our nation's schools: staff renewal. This is the current terminology for staff development, inservice education, or program improvement. Though the label changes, the basic element of continued learning for professional improvement remains constant. Staff renewal is a new look at an old idea.

Today, staff development has taken on increased importance as educators realize that this vehicle bears the brunt for school improvement. School systems nationwide are presently devoting a considerable portion of their financial resources to staff development than at any other time in the past. Non-school organizations recognized the need for the education and renewal of their employees much sooner than we in education have. The terminology used for staff development in business and industry is human resources development, as these organizations recognize that profit and success are directly tied to the organization's commitment to developing its human resources.

There appear to be some major reasons for the increased emphasis on staff development over the past several years. Declining enrollment has significantly decreased the amount of teacher turnover and people are staying in education longer. As a result of this decreased mobility, there are fewer new teachers to inject new ideas and enthusiasm into the school program. Many teachers would like to leave their profession but cannot, so they remain for the wrong reasons, and this presents a special problem for staff developers.

Growing public dissatisfaction with the schools has also increased interest in staff development. The "back-to-the-basics" movement and the resulting competency legislation in many states came from people outside of the field of education. The perceived declining student achievement has drawn a considerable amount of criticism from the public.

The third major item that has increased the emphasis on staff development is the growing pressure from the public for the schools to cure all of our social ills. The schools have accepted the responsibility for meeting all societal needs, oftentimes at the expense of teaching children.

Three major factors determine the quality of education we provide for students in our schools:

1. Nature of the student population
2. The curriculum provided for the students
3. The quality of the staff members.

Public schools have little control over the nature of the students attending the schools. Educators have some control over the curriculum, but this control has been determined by state mandates and societal pressures to a great degree. The area we do have a significant amount of control over is the quality of our staff members, and this is the area where staff development must be viewed as an investment. Staff developers expect dividends in the form of performance and, hopefully, increased student achievement. The problem is that the teachers do not respond to staff development programs as enthusiastically as staff developers do.

Educators writing about staff development have described this area as the "slum" of education or our greatest "disaster area." Teachers may have more vivid descriptions concerning the worth of staff development programs. Louis Rubin summarizes the state of staff development when he says:

> . . . Inservice education has been virtually a lost cause . . .; teacher professional growth has not been taken seriously, it lacks a systematic methodology, and it has been managed with astounding clumsiness. It is not surprising, therefore, that teachers have grown accustomed to its impotence and that administrators have come to regard it as a routine exercise in futility.[1]

It is apparent that we have missed the target with our staff development efforts as evidenced by some of the research completed by James King, et.al., which states:

> (Staff development) is one of the perplexing and persistent questions in American education: Why do teachers, who almost universally appear eager to improve their professional performance, frequently respond with disdain or outright hostility to local efforts to "inservice" them.[2]

The following comments indicate the relatively low priority staff development activities have in most school districts.

- The typical staff development activity is a lecture discussion on a topic of broad general interest with limited opportunities provided for personalized adult learning experiences.
- Staff development activities typically take place at the end of a tiring school day when dynamic interaction and exchange are diminished.
- Staff development activities neglect the use of valuable research conducted in education.
- The leaders of staff development pay little attention to the needs and learning styles of adult learners.

It is readily apparent that the image teachers have of staff development is one of frustration when we look at how staff development activities are planned and conducted. The present state of staff development need not be

the way it is described by teachers. There is an overwhelming amount of research completed relating to staff development, so the problem is not that we lack available knowledge. The problem, I suspect, is that we do not practice what we know.

The limited length of this paper requires that the primary focus center on the following major purposes:

1. The paper will serve as a planning device for those responsible for staff development.
2. The paper will serve as a guide to the process of staff development and serve as a basis of study for analyzing the process.

To assist educational leaders in designing effective staff renewal programs, I will use the five stages for designing staff development programs described by Fred Wood, Steven Thompson, and Sister Francis Russell in the 1981 ASCD yearbook titled, *Staff Development/Organizational Development*. The five stages are: 1) Readiness; 2) Planning; 3) Training; 4) Implementation; 5) Maintenance.

A review of the literature indicates that these five stages appear to be common in most effective staff development programs. In addition, an introductory section is provided in the paper which discusses human energy, adult learning, and the critical characteristics of staff development. This introductory section is an area that has not been integrated into staff development planning but has a significant implication for planning, design, and implementation.

I want to emphasize that the intent of this paper is to focus on the process of staff development. The content and format for staff development programs will vary according to the needs and circumstances found in each school and community. Once a clear understanding of the process is established, the content and format for staff development activities should meet the needs of teachers and change their view of staff development from one of frustration to one of extreme satisfaction. This study of process and the five-stage process described can be applied to large and small schools in rural, urban, or suburban settings.

STAFF RENEWAL

The importance of how adults develop and learn is of paramount significance and has far-reaching implications for the success of staff development programs. We have failed to devote sufficient attention to the distinctive qualities of adult learning. Insights into how adults learn, why they learn, and what they want to learn are the key elements in planning and conducting staff development programs.

An accumulating amount of research on adult development provides a variety of critical insights into planning staff development programs. The work of Sheehy, Hunt, and Santmire are the most notable works among others. A comprehensive study of the research on adult development completed by these scholars is essential and I will attempt to mention the most significant elements of these works in the hope that it will motivate people responsible for staff development to seek more knowledge on this important topic. The work of Anthony Gregorc regarding learning styles also closely relates to the work of Sheehy, Hunt, and Santmire and is valuable material having far-reaching implications for staff development.

David Hunt and his associates completed a comprehensive study of adult teachers by observing teachers in a natural setting and documenting their behavior in relation to his conceptual systems theory. Hunt is careful to point out that the developmental level of an adult is not a permanent classification because adult growth is continuous.

Hunt and his associates conceive of adult development as progressing toward four primary and identifiable levels, emphasizing that staff development programs designed according to developmental needs and learning styles can assist in making teachers more effective. In brief, staff developers should match staff development programs to developmental needs for maximum

effectiveness. Santmire states that:

> The possibility that development continues in the adult years means that staff development programs may play a key role, not only in teaching new content and skills, but also in the development of the individual in more fundamental ways as well.[3]

Hunt and Santmire detail the four conceptual levels and transitional levels between them in their research findings. These findings can be summarized as follows:

> Level I — Individuals at this level have internalized the general social norms which apply to our culture. There is a strong respect for authority as individuals rely on authority figures to create new ideas and determine the correct path to follow. The transition to Level II occurs when individuals experience situations where norms appear to conflict and individuals question these norms and standards.
>
> Proceeding to Level II, the individual questions and articulates his/her norms and standards and conceptualizes an identity. This leads us to conceptual Level III where the individual views himself in relation to other people to determine how other people differ from the self.
>
> In Level III, the adult increases understanding of the uniqueness of each individual and how to react in this environment of differentiality. The transition to Level IV occurs when the individual adapts a team concept to realize goals and objectives. The primary conceptual task at this level is the discovery of ways individuals can cooperate to achieve common goals. The highest level, Level IV, has the characteristics of a self-reliant, autonomous individual.[4]

Current research, Santmire (1979), indicates that most adult learners can be categorized as falling into Level I and transitional Level II. With this in mind we will focus on staff development as it relates to these levels. Santmire found that Level I adult learners were very pragmatic since they stress the practical and have difficulty adapting to change. The Level I learners' dependence on authority and right or wrong orientation make them inflexible and unwilling to change or accept new ideas. They perceive what they are doing to be working and comfortable for them based on their experience, and they will not accept new ideas willingly. New learning must be presented by an "authority" and must be practical and related to the classroom setting. Level I learners also tend to isolate their particular situation and not view the total school setting.

The recognition of alternatives to reach the same end is a common characteristic of the adult learner categorized in transitional

Level II. The learners in transitional Level II acquire a questioning attitude and frequently challenge authority by expressing their point of view. These learners also experience some insecurity as they begin to determine that there is not just one correct way to do something. Though the Level II learners will chalienge authority, they will still rely on a leadership figure to assist them in clarifying their thinking on certain issues. The transitional Level II learners also need to be allowed to explore and experiment without feeling threatened.

The research related to adult developmental characteristics has some far-reaching and important implications for staff development activities in which teachers are engaged. The staff development activities for Level I learners must be practically oriented and address a specific need. These adult learners need to be convinced that the material they are learning can be applied directly to classroom situation. They need a "cookbook" presentation format, emphasizing the what, how, why, and when dimensions of an issue or procedure.

The lecture/discussion format of presentation including material and procedures that can be applied to the actual classroom setting are typically most productive with Level I learners and should be presented by a recognized authority on the topic. The presentation must be clearly organized and follow a strict order to be most effective for the Level I learner. In addition, discussion must be focused and pertain to a specific topic. Any degree of ambiguity in the lecture and discussion will result in the Level I learner abandoning the learning experience. One of the most important aspects of the learning experience for Level I learners is to follow-up. If Level I learners are to succeed in implementing any new learning, they need a high degree of support and assistance if they are to move to the next developmental stage. This point is emphasized by Santmire when he states:

> A basic concern is for follow-up in terms of classroom application. These types of learners are rarely secure in new ventures escpecially at first, and Level I learners are particularly prone to abandoning activities that do not immediately work for them. They need support to determine what they might be doing incorrectly and help them modify their teaching. When Level I learners are given opportunities and support for consolidating new learning and reflecting on new behaviors they can often articulate questions which lead to the transition Level II.[3]

The staff development activities for transitional Level II learners take on a different format related to the characteristics previously

discussed concerning their developmental stage. Learners at this stage of the development respond to alternative strategies, and the content does not require the specific focus it did for Level I learners. Transitional Level II learners prefer a rationale for why a specific procedure is considered effective. These learners still rely on strong support from an authority figure but desire to develop strategies from their point of view.

Santmire further states:

> A most important consideration in staff development for learners in transitional Level II is the relation between the learners and instruction. Lecture is but tolerated as a mode of information transmission, and it is best engaged when the learner wants specific information.
>
> Lecture discussion in which learners have the opportunity to question and express their own point of view and have it accepted, is more palatable. Group discussion techniques are preferred, especially when participants are given the opportunity to express and elaborate their own points of view.[6]

The work by Santmire and Hunt indicates that the transitional Level II learner wants to be able to apply the new learning with assistance on an individual basis by an instructional leader.

The work of Anthony Gregorc and Jard De Ville provide staff developers with some valuable information regarding adult learners. Gregorc's work refers to the various learning styles learners possess, and I will briefly summarize some of the most important findings from his research.

Gregorc believes people tell us how they learn through their behavior. His research focuses on assisting teachers in understanding human learning so they can apply the information to the classroom setting. The research findings are so dynamic that they are of great value when applied to adult learning and staff development. Gregorc's research also closely relates to the conceptual system theory developed by Santmire and Hunt.

Gregorc defines learning styles in the following way:

> Learning style consists of distinctive behaviors which serve as indicators of how a person learns from and adapts to his environment. It also gives clues as to how a person's mind operates.[7]

The research results of Gregorc reveal that learners fall into four categories: 1) Concrete Sequential; 2) Concrete Random; 3) Abstract Sequential; 4) Abstract Random. Gregorc found that learners exhibit characteristics from all four categories, but one style tends to be dominant. A brief analysis of these four styles will

aid in understanding how adults learn and the implications learning styles have on staff development activities.

The Concrete Sequential learners prefer structure, order, and direction in their learning experience. The new learning must have a direct payoff and be very practical in nature, with little ambiguity. This type of learner sees situations as right or wrong, black or white, and correct or incorrect. Careful attention must be paid to detail, and step-by-step directions on procedures are essential. The Concrete Sequential learner places a strong value on and accepts official authority. It is easy to see a similarity between Hunt's Level I learner and the Concrete Sequential learner.

Concrete Random learners have imagination and insight and see multiple answers to questions or concerns. This type of learner will accept authority only if it is verified. Exploration and experimentation characterize this problem-solving type of learner. The Concrete Random learner is also more self-directed and seeks an environment that provides opportunities to discover his/her own answers to various questions by working independently or in small groups.

Abstract Sequential learners prefer a learning situation that has substance and is well-organized. This type of learner has strengths in written, verbal, and image symbols and has a keen sense of anlysis. The Abstract Sequential learner accepts referent authority and places a high value on documentation and research.

Abstract Random learners are affectively oriented and can tolerate some ambiguity, while seeking alternatives to a situation. This type of learner likes group discussion activity and a high degree of freedom and informality. They appear to see the topical situation or the whole instead of viewing the learning experience in discrete and well-ordered steps. The Abstract Random learner prefers a dynamic presentation and accepts authority but is comfortable to question authority.

The research completed by Gregorc is critical knowledge for staff developmental learners to understand when planning inservice activities. Not all adults have the same learning style and the media and methodology used by the staff developers must match the style of the adult learner for maximum effectiveness. The media used for staff development should be matched to the learning style of the individual as summarized by Gregorc when he states:

> We have found, for example, that Concrete Sequential oriented learners report preferences for workbooks, manuals, demonstration, program instruction, hands-on material and well-organized field trips. The Abstract Random learner shows a predilection for movies, group in-

> struction, short lectures accompanied by question/answer discussion and television. The Abstract Sequential learner feels a need for extensive reading assignments, substantive lectures, audio-tapes and analytical think session. Finally, Concrete Random learners like games and simulations, independent study projects, problem-solving activity and optional reading assignments.[8]

Hunt, Santmire, and Gregorc have a great deal in common among themselves and also with the work of Jard De Ville, a professor at the University of Wisconsin. I feel De Ville's work is important because it deals with identifying personality patterns, another aid for understanding the adult learner when planning staff development programs.

As human beings we are creatures of habit and follow what De Ville labels as the Law of Psychological Economy. This is described by De Ville when he states:

> The Law of Psychological Economy evolved in order to save time in routine activities and relationships. Once you have learned to drive a car, swim, ride a bicycle or to interpret the modes and actions of other people, you follow the law of economy to simplify your life and reduce the number of conscious decisions you have to make . . .
>
> Problems arise when you automatically behave in the same way you always have even though it is no longer effective for you to do so. But in any case, you live within the pattern you find comfortable, though in this age of change, when instincts and traditions no longer serve you well, your habits get you into trouble. You go on doing what you have always done, largely to reduce tension, and then discover to your dismay that people are no longer willing to let you share in the winnings.[9]

The organization and operation of the school almost require that teachers utilize the law of psychological economy to survive. Schools are organized as bureaucracies with formal hierarchical structures that govern the daily operation of the school. Decision-making, role identification, and communication from the top all fall within a predictable format of operation. This bureaucracy is created to enable educators to mass educate or "batch process" students. Philip Cusick in his book *Inside High School* describes batch processing in the following way:

> Life in secondary schools is life in crowds for both teachers and students. As complex organizations which deal with large numbers of students with limited time and resources, schools must develop mechanisms for process-

ing people in batches rather than individually.

. . . in addition, batch processing influences classroom teaching. In order to process students for instruction, the school day is divided into discrete time periods, each devoted to individual subject matter instruction, with one teacher for every 25 students on the average.

In effect, batch processing creates empty time. For the teacher this means that instruction is shaped by non-academic forces; that a great deal of their day is spent in maintenance and school activities and not in teaching. It means that their work is punctuated by interruptions and housekeeping chores; that their instructional options are limited. The requirement that large numbers of students be processed through the school organization often leads to a fragmentation and routinization of work that is difficult to avoid.[10]

Teachers follow the law of psychological economy because life in our schools encourages routine behaviors rather than creativity and innovation. The reliance and acceptance of the status quo is a life preserver in a sea of uncertainty for teachers. Staff development activities and renewal is the most promising vehicle we have in education today to combat the routinization and dependence on the status quo we are presently experiencing in many of our school programs.

The personality patterns within which teachers operate assist the staff developer in renewing staff members and in providing the most effective staff development activities. Research has shown that people do indeed live within clearly defined patterns of behavior, and each person attempts to remain in his/her personal comfort zone as much as possible in the work situation. A brief analysis of the four personality patterns developed by De Ville assists the staff developer in planning a staff development program. The four patterns De Ville describes are: 1) Controlling Pattern; 2) Entertaining Pattern; 3) Supportive Pattern; 4) Comprehending Pattern;

The person who has the Controlling Pattern likes to direct others with control of his/her emotions. This type of person is competitive and self-controlled. The controller is assertive, extraverted, and tends to be task-oriented and precise about the use of time. One of the greatest strengths of the controller is his or her ability to make decisions. The controller also possesses a high degree of inner strength and drive and is highly self-directive. The controller would most likely respond to staff development programs that are efficient, concise, and well-organized, as they do not tolerate uncer-

tainty and ambiguity.

The Entertaining Pattern is affectively oriented, and these people share their emotions openly and expressively. The entertainers relate quickly to strangers, dominate the scene, and do not like to share the spotlight with others. The greatest strength of entertainers is that they are people-oriented and have excellent communication skills. They are extraverted and will become interested in a variety of activities but lose interest in something as quickly as they become interested in it. Entertainers have great ideas and are very persuasive but lack the ability to follow through on something without close supervision. The entertainer is extremely cooperative yet very competitive. Entertainers are not good listeners and prefer to be in the spotlight, as they like to do the talking. Staff development programs that are lively and stimulating appeal to the entertainer. Entertainers prefer a program that shows a broad picture, as they do not respond to a great degree of detail. Games, simulations, and role-playing are good activities for the personality pattern if the staff developer supports the entertainer with proper follow-up and encouragement.

Individuals in the Supporting Pattern are people oriented and prefer low-risk, non-threatening learning experiences. They deal warmly with people and combine good listening skills with a high degree of cooperation. Supporters are more concerned about feelings and are flexible in regard to time. They are typically afraid to risk or deviate and cling to the status quo, unless they are assured that it is "okay" to experiment. To remain in their comfort zone, they will most often go out of their way to avoid conflict and continually seek approval of an authority.

The staff developer must understand that supporters do not like change, so they seek activities that are sincere and presented by people they trust and respect. The activity must be presented by an authority and be very structured and sequential.

The final personality pattern is the Comprehending Pattern. People in this pattern are typically competitive but are non-verbal, low-risk people. Comprehenders are objective thinkers and respond to accuracy. They pay strict attention to detail and need facts and data before making a decision to change or try something new. Comprehenders need a wealth of information on a topic and want the answers to be supported with facts and logic and will abandon a learning experience if there is uncertainty or ambiguity. These people are not flexible and spend a great deal of time inquiring about and studying a topic.

Staff development programs that are well-organized, authoritative, and do not require a great deal of participation are

most appropriate for this type of learner. They respond to facts, not feelings, and are concerned with an efficient use of time.

This material was included in this paper to emphasize that the staff development program must meet the needs of a variety of personalities to be effective. It points to the need for presenting programs that meet the needs of people in four general categories.

The most extensive research concerning the adult learner is that of Malcolm Knowles. His book, titled *The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species,* is required reading for staff developers. I will provide excerpts of his most important concepts to aid in the planning of staff development programs. The book contains a wealth of information but for the purposes of this paper, I will focus on his information regarding andragogy or how adults learn. As early as 1926, Edward C. Lindeman[11] offered valuable information that is seriously neglected by those people responsible for staff development programs. Some of Lindeman's statements summarized by Malcolm Knowles that are worth noting are:

> . . . the approach to adult education will be via the route of situations not subjects. Our academic system has grown in reverse order; subjects and teachers constitute the starting point, students are secondary. In conventional education, the student is required to adapt to an established curriculum; in adult education the curriculum is built around the student's needs and interests. Every adult person finds himself in specific situations with respect to his work, his recreation, his family life, his community life, etc., — situations which call for adjustments. Adult education begins at this point. Subject matter is brought into the situation, is put to work when needed.
>
> . . . the resource of highest value in adult education is the learner's experience. If education is life, then life is education. Too much of learning consists of vicarious instruction of someone else's experience and knowledge. Psychology is telling us however that we learn what we do, and that therefore, all genuine education will keep doing and thinking together . . . experience is the adult learner's textbook.
>
> . . . authoritative teaching, examinations which preclude original thinking, rigid formulae — all of these have no place in adult education. Small groups of aspiring adults who desire to keep their minds fresh and vigorous; who begin to learn by confronting pertinent situations; who dig down into the reservoirs of their experience before resorting to texts and secondary facts; who are led into the

> discussion by teachers who are also searchers after wisdom, not oracles: this constitutes the setting for adult education and the modern quest for life's meaning.
>
> . . . adult education is an attempt to discover a new method and create a new incentive for learning; its implications are qualitative, not quantitative, but adult learners are precisely those whose intellectual aspirations are least likely to be aroused by the rigid, uncompromising re quirements of authoritative conventionalized systems of learning.[12]

The work of Lindeman represents only a portion of the many elements of the comprehensive theory of adult learning that was developed by the early 1940's. It is only in recent years that all of these elements have been ordered and unified to form a theory that can be used by staff developers. Once again, however, we know far more than we put into practice.

The current password in adult learning and staff development circles is andragogy. This concept had its origins in Europe where a Dutch educator, Ger Von Enckevort, conducted considerable research and completed an extensive study of the concept. The term andragogy is a new term among educators but appears to be the concept that will serve as a unifying factor for our concept of adult learning. Malcolm Knowles is the American guru of adult learning, as he has brought the concept of andragogy into American educational literature. Knowles described the differences between pedagogy and andragogy in the following way:

> . . . from this origin developed the tradition of pedagogy which later spread to the secular schools of Europe and America and, unfortunately, was much later even applied to the education of adults. Let me point out that "pedagogy" comes from the same stem as "pediatrics," the Greek word "paid" meaning child (plus "agogus" meaning leader of). So literally pedagogy means the art and science of teaching children. So to speak of the "pedagogy of adult education" is a contradiction of terms. Yet haven't most adults — including people in professional training — been taught as if they were children?[13]

The new theory of adult learning titled "Andragogy" can be explained as follows:

> The new theory is derived from the stem of the Greek word "aner" meaning man and agogous meaning leader of. So andragogy is the teaching of adults or an adult learning theory.[14]

Knowles indicates that the andragogical theory of learning is not

strictly limited to adults when he says:

> I am not talking about a clear-cut differentiation between children and adults as learners. Rather I am differentiating between the assumptions about learners that have traditionally been made by those who practice pedagogy in contrast to the assumption of andragogy applied to children and youth as they mature, and that they too will come to be taught more and more andragogically.[13]

Knowles' andragogical theory is based on forming assumptions. These are: 1) self-concept; 2) experience; 3) readiness to learn, and 4) time perspective.

The andragogical theory of learning assumes that a person's self-concept changes as he/she grows and matures. This explains the earlier discussion and importance of understanding the developmental stages of an individual. As a person matures, the self-concept moves from one of almost complete dependency as a child to one of self-direction as an adult. Our traditional education environment has been so greatly influenced by pedagogical approaches that most adult learners approach an education program expecting to be treated like children and accept the teacher as the authority and transmitter of knowledge. When adult learners are provided with the opportunity to be responsible for their own learning, they experience an increase in motivation and a desire to make the learning process continuous.

The role of experience is an important aspect of the andragogical theory of learning. As people grow into maturity, they accumulate knowledge and experience which becomes a rich reservoir for learning. Knowles explains the role of experience in learning when he states:

> . . . as an individual matures he accumulates an expanding reservoir of experience that causes him to become an increasingly rich resource for learning, and at the same time provides him with a broadening base to which to relate new learnings. Accordingly in technology of andragogy, there is decreasing emphasis on the transmittal techniques of traditional teaching and increasing emphasis on experiential techniques which tap the experiences of the learners and involve them in analyzing their experience. The use of lectures, canned-audio visual presentations and assigned reading tend to fade in favor of discussion, laboratory work, simulation, team projects and other action learning experiences.[14]

The role of experience is also tied to self-concept. As a person

matures, his/her experiences tend to form that person's identity. Whether a person is a controller, entertainer, supporter, or comprehender depends to a degree on the experience a person has had. If the adult learner's experience is ignored or devalued, that person will feel rejected and unimportant. The andragogical theory of learning makes the learner's experiences a resource for learning and conveys an attitude of importance and respect.

Hill and Nunney make an important point regarding cognitive changes in the adult years when they say:

> . . . differences in cognitive styles have to increasingly be taken into account. If individual differences are important in dealing with children, they are more important in dealing with adults because they widen experience. A group of 50 year olds is more different than a group of 40 year olds, who in turn, are more differentiated than a group of ten year olds.[17]

The third assumption of the andragogical process is readiness to learn. In this context, readiness refers to how adult learners decide what needs to be studied based on the demands of their situation and the problems they face. Some ideas Knowles has on this topic are:

> . . . the assumption is that as an individual matures his readiness to learn is decreasingly the product of his biological development and academic pressure and is increasingly the product of the developmental tasks required for the performance of his evolving social roles.
>
> . . . the critical implication of this assumption is the importance of timing learning experiences to coincide with the learner's developmental tasks. It is my observation that a good deal of professional education is totally out of phase with the student's readiness to learn.
>
> For example, a new medical student needs to have direct experience with hospitals, patients, and practicing doctors before he is ready to learn facts about pathology, anatomy, biochemistry, and other content . . . he'll be ready to inquire into these areas of content as he confronts problems to which they are relevant.[18]

The implication for the concept of readiness for staff developers is that they need to develop strategies to stimulate the learner to higher levels of aspiration and achievement.

The final assumption of the andragogical theory of learning is the changed time perspective or orientation to learning. The children in our schools are conditioned to thinking of education in terms of storing up information that will be useful in the future.

This is what is meant when we talk about a changed time perspective for adult learners. Knowles explains the orientation to learning when he states:

> Children have been conditioned to have a subject-centered orientation to most learning, whereas adults tend to have a problem-centered orientation to learning. This difference is primarily the result of a difference in time perspective. The child's time perspective is one of postponed application.
>
> . . . the adult on the other hand comes into an educational activity largely because he is experiencing some inadequacy in coping with current life problems. He wants to apply tomorrow what he learns today, so his time perspective is one of immediacy of application. Therefore, he enters into education with a problem-centered orientation to learning.[19]

All of these characteristics of adult learners previously mentioned have a number of implications for educators of adult learners. Knowles (1978) lists five basic principles that constitute the basic elements of modern adult learning theory.

1. Adults are motivated to learn as they experience needs and interests that learning will satisfy; therefore, their needs and interests are appropriate starting points for organizing adult learning activities.
2. Adult orientation to learning is life centered; therefore, the appropriate units for organizing adult learning are life situations, not subjects.
3. Experience is the richest resource for adult learning; therefore, the core methodology of adult education is the analysis of experience.
4. Adults have a deep need to be self-directing; therefore, the role of the teacher is to engage in a process of mutual inquiry rather than to transmit knowledge to them and evaluate their conformity to it.
5. Individual differences among people increase with age; therefore, adult education must make optimal provisions for differences in style, time, place, and pace of learning.[20]

John Ingalls (1979) has synthesized the work of Knowles and has placed the characteristics of adult learners in a concise chart, illustrated in appendix A.

The andragogical theory of learning does not propose a total laissez-faire concept. Adult learners want direction, and the pedagogical appproach may be the most appropriate strategy when

the learner is entering into a new content area. The staff developer must act as a facilitator and utilize the appropriate strategy depending on the situation.

The role of the manager or the supervisor as a teacher of adults is yet another area of staff development that has been relatively neglected in the design and implementation of staff renewal programs. Malcolm Knowles (1978) states the importance of leadership when he says:

> The role of the manager has been a favorite topic of study for the behavioral scientists now for several decades, and their findings have done much to move management theory away from early conceptions of the managerial role as a simple mechanical organizer of work to a more complex conception of the multiple roles of the manager. For when the behavioral scientists studied what effective managers really do, they discover that they performed a variety of roles — planner, organizer, listener, operator, and teacher to cite a few — and each role requires its own unique set of competencies.
>
> A strong thrust in recent developments in management theory has been the increasing emphasis on the last named role: teacher. For in the long run, the executive who makes the greatest contribution to his corporation is the one who is able to release and develop the potential of the human resources that are his organization's principal asset. Thus according to modern management theory, every manager must be an educator too. So it is not enough for managers to be educators. They must be adult educators.[21]

Once the staff developer understands the theory of the andragogical approach to teaching, the role of the staff developer emerges. One of the primary reasons many staff development programs have failed to be effective has resulted because the role of the staff developer has not been clearly defined. The leadership function will be discussed as it applies to each of the five stages of planning staff development programs, so I will summarize some of the work completed by Allan Tough at this time.

Tough contends that the teacher of adults must assume a "helper role." It is important to note that Tough's view of the staff development leader subscribes to the andragogical approach. A summary of Tough's work reveals the following:

1. The staff developer will not be an effective helper if he feels inferior or superior as a person. If the teacher treats the learner as an equal he is unlikely to act authoritarian, dictatorial or in an arrogant manner.

2. The instructor's feelings of equality with the learners will probably lead to his interest in establishing friendly relationships with them.
3. The instructor should be eager to have the learners assume certain responsibilities for planning the learning activities. He may let the learners take much of the initiative in asking questions and setting directions.
4. The idea helper is probably an open and growing person, not a closed, negative, static, defensive, fearful or suspicious sort of person. He himself is frequently a learner and seeks growth and new experiences. He tends to be spontaneous and authentic and to feel free to behave as a unique person rather than in a stereotyped way.[22]

A considerable portion of this paper has been devoted to understanding the adult learner. An effective staff development program is closely related to the degree of understanding planners have about the adult learner. We have ignored even the most basic research on adult development and adult learning in planning staff development programs causing us serious problems.

John Withall and Fred Wood provide an excellent summary of the material discussed in this portion of the paper concerning adult learning. Withall and Wood list the following facts we need to be aware of when teaching adults:

> Adults will commit to learning something when the goals and objectives of the inservice are considered realistic and important to the learner; that is, job related and perceived as being immediately useful. Adults will learn, retain, and use what they perceive as relevant to their personal and professional needs.
>
> Adult learners need to see the results of their efforts and have accurate feedback about progress towards their goals.
>
> Adult learning is ego involved; learning a new skill technique or concept may promote a positive or negative self view. There is always a fear of external judgment that we adults are less than adequate which produces anxiety during new learning situations such as those presented in inservice training programs.
>
> Adults come to any learning experience with a wide range of previous experiences, knowledges, skills, self-direction, interests and competence. Individualization, therefore, is appropriate for adults as well as children.
>
> Adults want to be the origins of their own learning; that is, involved in selection of objectives, content activities and

assessment in inservice education.

Adults will resist learning situations which they believe are an attack on their competence, thus the resistance to impose inservice topics and activities.

Closely related adults reject prescriptions by others for their learning, especially when what is prescribed is viewed as an attack on what they are presently doing.

Adult motivation for learning and doing one's job has two levels; one is to participate in doing an adequate job and the second level is to become deeply involved and going beyond the minimal or norm. The first level of motivation comes as a result of good salary, fringe benefits, and fair treatment. The second builds on the first but comes from recognition, achievement, and increased responsibility.

Motivation is produced by the learner. All one can do is encourage and create conditions which will nuture what already exists in the adult.

Adult learning is enhanced by behaviors and inservice programs that demonstrate respect, trust, and concern for the learner.[23]

As you can see, a growing body of knowledge is accumulating that can assist staff developers in understanding how the adult learns. One of the central problems of staff development is that we know more than we practice. This information was provided to lay a foundation for discussing the five stages of designing a staff development program.

STAGE I — READINESS

Wood, Thompson, and Russell (1981) indicated that this stage of planning staff development is almost always forgotten. Included in this stage of designing staff development programs is development of a school climate that supports change and experimentation. These researchers inform us that in this state:

> . . . the school staff identifies possible solutions to instructional and programmatic problems, processes and procedures to be used in a school. At this point, individual group commitments to and understanding of the desired changes in professional behaviors are established.[24]

Once again, a considerable amount of literature provides us with some valuable insights into the structure of the organization. Organizational climate is multidimensional and unless attention is given to analyzing some of these dimensions, staff development programs have little chance of succeeding. The length of this paper allows only a brief treatment of an analysis of organization of

behavior; however, I cannot emphasize enough the importance of this factor in planning staff development programs. It may be necessary to devote a considerable amount of time in Stage I to achieve a productive climate for staff development programs. This is the stage in planning that has no short cuts or easy solutions.

An analysis of educational organizations reveals that two conflicting theories are realistically in operation. One theory that describes educational organizations is Max Weber's theory of the ideal bureaucracy. A school is a small bureaucracy containing formal organization, hierarchical relationships, role definition, systematized promotion, fixed salaries, a set of routine operating procedures, and a norm of standardization, to mention a few of Weber's most important concepts.

To transfer this idea to the educational organization we can see discrete time periods for instruction, control of students, standardization for grading students, line-staff authority, and a top to bottom decision-making process: thus, the bureaucratic model.

Karl Weick's theory of "loose coupling"[25] can also be used to describe school organizations and is contradictory to Weber's ideal bureaucracy. Weick believes school organizations are 'loose collections' and not 'systems' with no rational or formal linkages to allow the organization to function as a unified social organism.

The educational organization exhibits some characteristics of loosely coupled organizations. Conflicting grading standards from teacher-to-teacher, discrepancy in staff roles and job expectations, and poor communication are a few examples. A complete reading of Weick's work is very helpful in understanding the school organization, since teachers must operate within the bureaucratic organization and the loosely coupled organization to survive. When the school is viewed in both the bureaucratic framework and the loosely coupled framework, it becomes apparent that different strategies are needed for influencing readiness.

John Ingalls looks at organizational climate or the work environment from the three perspectives he feels provide most of the essential information for assessing the work environment. Ingalls (1977) describes physical, psychological, and organizational factors as most important among many other items.

The physical climate refers to the temperature, furniture arrangement, noise level, etc., in which people work. Poor physical working conditions can divert the energy of workers and diminish their productivity considerably.

The psychological climate of an organization is crucial for the staff developer to understand and assess because it has a significant impact on the Readiness Stage. Ingalls defines psychological

climate as the relative level of ambiguity present at any given time. He explains this in the following way:

> We can identify a band or wavelength of tension or ambiguity that is appropriate for healthy human functioning in any situation. This wavelength has inner and outer limits and exceeding these limits in either direction leads to operational dysfunctions and a loss of energy. For example, a certain level of tension must be maintained in an organization to prevent the development of a country club atmosphere.
>
> A tensionless organization will tend to experience a rapid deterioration of both work quantity and quality. On the other hand, too much tension brings about a condition of prevailing anxiety in which everyone and everything operates under crisis conditions. It is not uncommon under these conditions to hear complaints of overwork and understaffing.
>
> The level of psychological tension (or the ambiguity/certainty level) can vary within groups and organizations. Unless the level of psychological tension is maintained at an appropriate level based on the needs of the situation, much available human energy may be wasted.[24]

One of the primary leadership responsibilities of the staff developer is to achieve this balance to maximize the potential of the worker. Organizational climate, according to Ingalls' scheme, refers to "self-concept" of the organization. He contends that the organizations have a sense of identity and, though subtle, this identity can be assessed. Ingalls (1979) says that the identity concept involves:

> . . . what is feels like to be a member of the organization. Does the organization express a clear sense of its purpose or mission? Does the leadership give evidence of providing positive and constructive guidance? What kind of an organization is it? and how does it handle internal conflict?
>
> As change occurs in any organization structure in its tasks, its function or its processes, there will most likely be a change of organizational climate.
>
> An organizational climate can be assessed in terms of the observed gap between its expressed goals and ideals and its actual performance. This gap between real and ideal always exists. To successfully bring about a change in climate, we must try to help an organization and its members achieve a raised level of consciousness of the ex-

> isting gaps. Climate can only be improved when these gaps are identified and connected.[27].

Ingalls' work summarizes some of the most important issues that have implications for staff developers as mentioned earlier. Organizational climate is multidimensional. Some concepts are borrowed from systems theorists (Parson, Zadek, Hare); field theorists (Lewin, Lippit); organization theorists (Drucker, Blake, Likert, MacGregor, Argyris); and psychological theorists (Herzberg, Maslow, Jung), to mention the most significant individuals.

It is readily apparent that due to the complexity of the educational organizations and the multiplicity of variables, developing readiness in Stage I is most difficult. This difficulty is expressed by Knowles when he says:

> No educational organization teaches just through its courses, workshops, institutes; no corporation teaches just through its inservice education programs; and no voluntary organization teacnes just through its meetings and study groups. They all teach by everything they do, and often they teach opposite lessons in their organizational operation from what they teach in their educational program.
>
> This line of reasoning has led modern adult education theorists to place an increasing emphasis on the importance of bulding an educative environment in all institutions and organizations that undertake to help people learn. What are the characteristics of an educative environment? They can be boiled down to four characteristics: 1) respect for personality; 2) participation in decision-making; 3) freedom of expression and availability of information; 4) mutuality of responsibility in defining goals, planning, and conducting activities and evaluating.[28]

In essence, I've summarized some of the basic principles of democratic leadership, Theory Y management, Theory Z management, or any of the management styles based on humanistic psychological theory.

The task of creating the proper climate to prepare the staff for a change in their performance depends upon a clear communication system and a commitment on the part of the staff to improve.

The readiness stage should produce the following outcomes:

1. A set of broad goals that the staff has identified as being critical and needing to be addressed.
2. A broad short-range (one year) and long-range (five year) plan, putting the change strategies into practice.

STAGE II — PLANNING

One of the basic problems with many staff development programs rests with poor planning and organization, as most programs are designed in an impersonal way and often are not related to the reality of the classroom. In the planning stage, broad goals from Stage I — Readiness must be developed into specific objectives. A major component of this stage of staff development programs is needs assessment and goal identification.

It is my contention that staff development programs are comprised of two major areas that are interdependent. Staff development needs to be viewed from an organizational perspective and also from a professional development philosophy — both aimed at improving student learning and achievement.

The professional development component refers to the knowledge and performance competency of the individuals in the school organization. It is important to note the difference here between knowledge and performance or skill competencies, as each must be taught utilizing a distinctly different strategy.

Knowledge competency deals with the learning necessary to enable the teacher to teach information, concepts, and principles demanded by a changing curriculum. Performance competencies refer to specific skills needed by the teacher for effective classroom instruction. These objectives relate to improving teaching methodology and behavior of the individual teacher.

I will discuss the planning stage from both the organizational perspective and the professional development perspective in this section of the paper.

One must recognize that the school as an organization is a collection of individuals operating in a variety of systems, and for the school to operate effectively, the goals and objectives of the organization must be accomplished by synergetic or collective action versus individual action.

A recent idea that holds great promise for making school organizations self-renewing is organizational development, commonly referred to as OD.

The most popular definition of OD is that given by Beckhard:

> Organizational development is an effort: 1) planned; 2) organization-wide; 3) managed from the top to; 4) increase organization effectiveness and health through; 5) planned interventions in the organization processes using behavioral science technology.[29]

This valuable strategy stresses the concept of managed change that involves the active participation of the individual in the organization to bring about planned organized change to increase

organizational competence. Organization development is a strategy that involves planned interventions. An intervention is a specific action taken to influence people to change their behavior in an organization; thus changing the culture of the organization. Organizational development theorists have grouped interventions under eight basic strategies.

These are:

1. Diagnosis
2. Team building
3. Establishing and clarifying work procedures
4. Working or interpersonal relationships
5. Establishing and clarifying roles and responsibilities
6. Management of intergroup conflicts
7. Technical instructional changes
8. Education and skill training.

The importance of organizational development in creating a responsive, self-renewing school is summarized by Chris Argyris (1965) when he states:

> Available evidence suggests that work can be satisfying even if it frequently is not; that many people continue to perceive greater opportunities for personal satisfaction in their work than they do elsewhere; and that when work is dull and passive people usually do not choose leisure pursuits that answer needs for variety and rigorous activities but turn instead to activities that are as undernourishing as their work. To ignore the satisfaction of human needs in the work place, is inevitably to bring about two undesirable results: students and staff will in one way or another increasingly remove themselves from serious work and they will drag through each additional unrewarding day with growing discouragement . . . there is unquestionably a link between satisfaction with organizational life and the fulfillment of human needs.[10]

A variety of methods are available to assess organizational needs. Needs assessment is an information gathering process that identifies discrepancy between "what is" and "what should be." This discrepancy or gap is where the motivation for change lies.

Questionnaires and interviews provide a number of useful benefits for assessing needs. If systematically and thoroughly performed, questionnaires and interviews give each respondent an equal chance to be heard and quantitative comparisons can be made to indicate trends or preferences. A variety of prepared instruments is available to assess needs. It may also be beneficial for an organization to develop its own questionnaire to meet its own

needs.

Another effective method for assessing needs and focusing on goals and objectives is the Delphi method. The Delphi method is a way of replacing the committee with a sequence of individual interrogations interspersed with informational feedback.

Beckhard (1975) offers a goal-confrontation activity that can be used to obtain a finalistic goal toward which the organization can take committed action. This is usually a one-day activity which can bring together a large segment of an organization in order to set priorities and action targets. The activity is designed to mobilize the whole organization in a very short period of time toward an action plan and priorities for change and improvement. This entire strategy is described in Beckhard's book **Organization Development: Strategies and Models.**

These are only a few of the many strategies that can aid an organization in conducting a needs assessment. A variety of other strategies can and should be used.

The primary focus of the knowledge or skill competencies is upon the individual teacher. Phyllis Hamilton describes the competency-based staff development program with five (5) basic characteristics:

1. All staff development efforts are focused upon the learner. Each individual is totally involved in making decisions as to which strategy should be utilized to develop a specific competency. In short, these efforts are a reflection of his/her personality.
2. Instructional modules or professional development packets are prepared for each participant relative to his or her own unique situation. They consist of strategies and activities designed to help the teacher reach his or her professional development goals. They are criterion referenced; this provides information as to a degree of competence attained by a particular participant, independent of reference to the performance of others.
3. Time is perceived as a variable. As participants begin to develop strategies, target dates are established for the attainment of various objectives viewed to be essential to the attainment of a stated competency. Target dates are flexible and can be modified as a need arises.
4. Developmental activities are field centered. Emphasis is placed on the participant's performance in either simulated or real settings. Simulated conditions are utilized to reduce the high risk element. Real settings are utilized as one becomes more proficient.

5. The emphasis is on exit rather than entrance requirements. Any individual who has a genuine need may become involved. Once involved, exit criteria is (sic) jointly established with each participant so that all parties concerned may know when one's goal has been attained.[31]

It is apparent from these comments that the most powerful program for improving professional competency is a plan developed by the individual teacher that is unique to his/her personal needs and personality

The development of needs assessment when dealing with performance competency is an extremely delicate issue that has been grossly mismanaged by staff developers up to the present time. We often make the assumption that all professional teachers have a strong desire to improve their present competencies or are anxious to learn new competencies. As mentioned earlier, human beings are creatures of habit, fairly content with the status quo. Staff development presents the concept of change which is threatening to teachers. Bryson (1973) summarizes the impact of change when he states:

> To rethink, to retool, grasp fresh ideas and issues, solve the ever-present dichotomies in an ever changing society is a severely difficult task.[32]

This is exactly what a staff development program, focusing on professional competency, asks teachers to do — to rethink, retool, identify discrepancies, and deal with change.

The leadership role in staff development programs focusing on performance competencies as mentioned before is a delicate issue. The staff development leader must move the participants from the passive role in conventional staff development to an active role. Feedback must be provided to teachers in an informational, not judgmental, format so the individual teacher can self-evaluate to determine whether or not a discrepancy gap exists.

Robert Carkhuff has developed a "helping" model that can productively be adapted to staff development programs. Carkhuff's model can be described with the following goals:

1. The helper's first goal is to facilitate the helpee's self-exploration of the problem.
2. The second goal of helping is to facilitate helpee understanding. As the helpee presents the helper with bits and pieces of information, it is the helper's job to put them together in such a way that the helpee can begin to understand himself and the problem more fully.
3. The final goal of the helper model is to assist the helpee in

developing a course of action."

The "helper" process requires good interpersonal relationship skills and open communication. The helper can be the administrator or a colleague. With open communication, the helper can assist the helpee in understanding the problem to its fullest extent.

The efforts of the planning stage should result in a staff development document that includes a short-range plan (one year) and a long-range plan (five year). This written plan should include:

1. The goals of the program the staff will address.
2. Specific objectives to be addressed.
3. A sequence of planned activities designed to implement desired changes.
4. A detailed description of staff development activities for each year.
5. A complete listing of possible resources.
6. A feasible budget plan to implement the program.

STAGE III — TRAINING

The training stage of a staff development program involves the presentation of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes involved in effecting the desired change in organizational or personal behavior. This stage of the staff development program must be focused upon how adults learn. The most common type of training is the workshop.

Bruce Joyce and Beverly Showers provide us with a wealth of valuable information related to the training stage. These two scholars have completed a comprehensive research study to examine the ability of teachers to acquire new teaching skills and strategies. Their research indicates that teachers are excellent learners and have the ability to acquire new competencies and skills to improve their teaching performance. Joyce and Showers also indicate that teachers need certain conditions and strategies to learn new skills to improve their teaching.

Two general purposes of training are described by Joyce and Showers. These purposes are summarized by the following statements:

> Improving our teaching can be focused on fine 'tuning' our present skills or on learning new ways of teaching. Generally speaking, fine tuning our existing approach is easier than mastering and implementing new ones, because the magnitude of change is smaller and less complex. To master a new approach, we need to explore and understand

its rationale — develop the ability to carry out the new strategy and master fresh content."[14]

Joyce and Showers completed a comprehensive review of literature on training and synthesized this information which is most helpful to staff developers when planning programs. The elements of training are directly related to adult learning theory and learning theory as explained by psychologists. Joyce and Showers reviewed the literature and determined that five major components of training could be described.

The results of their study revealed that "to be most effective, training should include theory, demonstration, feedback, and classroom application."[15]

A large number of training components have been intensely studied by a variety of researchers. The major components of training in the studies reviewed were:

1. Presentation of theory or description of a skill or strategy.
2. Modeling or demonstrating of skills or models of teaching.
3. Practice and simulated classroom settings.
4. Structured and open-ended feedback (provision of information about performance).
5. Coaching for application (hands on in classroom assistance with the transfer of skills and strategies to the classroom.)"[16]

Joyce and Showers reviewed the research and studied the impact each of the training components had on the leanrer. Their findings are extremely interesting, and we will consider each training component with respect to the degree of impact each level has on the adult learner.

Many workshops in staff development programs begin with the presentation of a theory or new skill. The presentation of theory results in limited application or transfer of skills to the classroom setting. Few people transfer skills from theory presentation alone. The presentation of theory develops an awareness but has little impact on transfer or skill acquisition. Many staff development activities present a skill, theory, or new idea and neglect to assess the necessary follow-up activities to ensure implementation. Presentation of theory achieves its greatest impact when combined with other components.

Modeling or demonstration involves the enactment of a specific skill, utilizing a live demonstration or some form of media. The more complex the activity, the more often the skill must be demonstrated. Modeling increases the awareness of the participant

and also has an impact on the acquisition of cognitive knowledge. Learning theory indicates that the demonstration of a particular teaching strategy increases understanding of theory but does not necessarily ensure the transfer of that strategy to classroom practice. Joyce and Showers state:

> All in all, research appears to indicate that modeling is very likely to be an important component of any training program aimed at acquisition of complex skills and their transfer to the classroom situation.[17]

One of the most effective ways of developing competence is engaging in a variety of teaching strategies with practice under simulated conditions. Practice involves trying out new teaching strategies with an audience of peers or small groups of students. Once the teacher has achieved a high level of success, the skill is more easily transferred to a real classroom setting. As the skill becomes more complex, the degree of transfer diminishes.

Another important component of the training process is the utilization of structured feedback. Feedback can be provided by peers who observe the teacher, by student questionnaires, by viewing video-tape, or a variety of other methods. The combination of practice and feedback sequence can have a considerable impact on the awareness of the teacher's behavior. Consistent feedback is necessary if teachers are to make changes and maintain those changes as part of the teaching repertoire.

Joyce and Showers emphasize the importance of using coaching for application and transfer. Their research states that direct coaching on how to apply new teaching strategies is a necessary component of training. Joyce and Showers state:

> Coaching for application involves helping teachers analyze the content to be taught and the approach to be taken and making very specific plans to help the students adapt to a new teaching approach.[18]

Joyce and Showers indicate that to achieve the most effective training situation, a combination of all five components is necessary. The combination of theory, modeling, practice, feedback, and coaching results in a staff development program with the most significant impact.

The information on the components of the training stage of staff development is based primarily on the concepts of experiential learning. The theory of experiential learning explains that internalized learning occurs when a person accepts new information, integrates the knowledge and skill with prior experience, and applies that information to a specific situation.

Emphasizing the experiential learning in staff development pro-

grams has a considerable impact on learning as stated by James Coleman (1976) when he says that what is learned through the experiential learning process is:

1. Not tied to abstract words but to real experiences that can be drawn upon when one is back in the work setting.
2. Remembered over a longer period of time.
3. More likely to be used after the training is completed."

This type of learning is generally accepted by adults because it can be applied to the classroom setting and they perceive the learning as useful in the "real world."

Closely related to experiential learning is an individual development model described by John Ingalls. This model has not been utilized in staff development programs in the past, and I mention it here because of the strength of the model. Ingalls describes the steps in this model as:

1. Listing knowledge (understanding) and skill (ability to execute) requirements and preparing a competency chart to identify gaps between present and desired levels of performance.
2. Developing a plan of action for a specified time period, say 3 or 6 months or a year.
3. Discussing your plan of action with an objective and friendly observer to obtain assistance in evaluating your performance.
4. Implementing your plan of action.
5. Demonstrating your new level of competence at the end of the time period and preparing a new competency chart based on mutually shared perceptions of your progress."

The strength of this model is that it is a systematic plan for achieving the desired degree of competency, and it builds in a plan for continual review, thus making it a self-renewing model. A deeper treatment of this model is provided in Malcom Knowles' book titled **Self-Directed Learning.**

There are two critical elements that need to be emphasized in Stage III that do not presently exist in most staff development programs. These factors are feedback and choices provided for participants. All the research on adult learning points to the need for allowing participants to select activities that they believe will have the greatest impact upon their learning. In regard to feedback, staff developers seldom provide time for teachers to share their successes and frustrations. Informal sharing sessions are essential for

teachers participating in staff development activities, as research indicates that adults have a strong need to receive feedback from their peers.

STAGE IV — IMPLEMENTATION

One of the primary shortcomings of many staff development programs is that the new learning seldom finds its way into the classroom or organization. Implementation is defined for the purposes of this paper as the stage where the new learning becomes operational and is activated as intended.

The implementation stage is a critical phase of the staff development program and probably the most challenging stage. Goodlad speaks of the difficulty of implementation when he states:

> The lesson of post-Sputnik curriculum development is that implementation is tough; that it too seldom lives up to the promise of planning and that without involvement, commitment, and training any significant modifications will be rejected as soon as pressure is diminished or as personnel are reassigned.[41]

Implementation is difficult because it involves the installation of a new behavior or a change that requires participation, not merely discussion. It is important that what is learned in a staff development program is put into practice as intended, so when people leave a staff development program, they have developed a detailed, written plan for implementing the new learning.

Implementation is a complex process involving a number of factors that are interrelated and necessitate consideration by the people planning staff development prorams.

The school board and administrative staff must display support and convey the messge that the new learning to be accomplished is given a high priority. An environment of support must be created with the school board and staff development personnel demonstrating their serious commitment to the program.

The objectives of the program to be implemented must be clear and the change to be instituted must be superior to the old program or behavior. People are not committed to change unless it is clear that the new learning or behavior will result in a product that is far superior to the status quo.

The staff members participating in the staff development program must be assured that a supportive atmosphere exists so they are comfortable in implementing the new learning. A variety of different entry and exit points for people involved in staff development activities must be provided with particular attention given toward developing the helpee-helper relationship.

The provision for a variety of entry and exit points implies that a reasonable time period should be provided for the teacher to achieve the desired level of competence for the new behavior.

A factor that escalates the implementation process is relevance. The adult learner must be convinced that the new learning can be successfully applied to the real classroom setting. Another factor effecting the implementation process is the quality of communication within the organization. Sincere and honest feedback is a necessary component for maintaining the implementation of a new behavior. Communication between teachers and administrators and among the peer group is essential for success, and time should be provided for teachers to share their successes and failures in an informal, non-threatening environment.

The person responsible for staff development must recognize that lasting change takes a considerable amount of time. Staff developers must be willing to make a time commitment to reteach, revise, and support new behaviors.

Implementation depends heavily on internal commitment. Chris Argyris (1965) offers excellent insight into the importance of internal commitment when he states:

> Internal commitment means the course of action or choice that has been internalized by each member so that he experiences a high degree of ownership and has a feeling of responsibility about the choice and its implications. Internal commitment means that the individual has reached the point where he is acting on the choice because it fulfills his own needs and sense of responsibility as well as those of the system.
>
> The individual who is internally committed is acting primarily under the influence of his own forces and not induced forces. The individual (or any unity) feels a minimal degree of dependence upon others for the action. It implies that he has obtained and processed valid information and that he has made an informed choice. Under these conditions there is a high probability that the individual's commitment will remain strong over time (even with reduction of external rewards), or under stress or when the course of action is challenged by others. It also implies that the individual is continually open to re-examination of his position because he believes in taking action based upon valid information.[42]

Developing internal commitment is a difficult process, compounded when the staff developer is working with an aging staff already set in their ways. Without internal commitment, a great

deal of resistance to change will result. Commitment on the part of the participants in a staff development program is a necessary ingredient for the sustained implementation of change in an educational program or professional competency program.

Some ways to avoid failure in implementing change are provided by Warren Bennis, noted social scientist, who has devoted much of his time to studying organizational change. His ideas are summarized below:

Take care to distinguish between those teachers who are interested in innovation as a means to better deliver educational services to students and those who are attached to anything different only because it is different, or who are against anything already established simply because it is established.

Plan for change from a solid conceptual base and have a clear-cut understanding of how to change as well as what to change. Knowing what you want to accomplish and why you want to accomplish it is not enough. Goals are not the same as programs. You need a clear notion of what the change will look like in practice and plan for bringing about change.

Do not settle for rhetorical change. A plan sketched out on paper is not enough. Change takes place in the hearts and minds of people and is manifested in changes in their behavior.

Understand the culture of the school and community and the culture's language system and symbols in bringing about change. A solid communication program that articulates the changes in the language of people (not the language of professional education) should be part of the change strategy.

Allow time to consolidate gains. A common failure of change programs is the tendency to move so fast that the necessary girdings of change are not sufficiently developed. A successful school is one that adapts to external stimuli; it changes but it also maintains itself internally; it consolidates and incorporates its changes. Imagine building a dock out into the lake. If you extend the dock out too far without the necessary support posts, it will collapse.

Change is most successful when those who are affected are involved in the planning. Nothing makes persons as resistant to new ideas or approaches as the feeling that change is being imposed upon them. People resist change if they

are not significantly involved in the planning.[41]

The staff developer responsible for implementation must be highly competent and extremely perceptive. The leader must combine his/her knowledge of the organization, an understanding of the individuals involved, and a leadership style to ensure successful and sustained implementation.

STAGE V — EVALUATION

Evaluation in educational organizations typically carries a negative connotation because educators tend to rely on scientific methodology, statistics, and other quantitative data to assess the value of a program. Educators balk at the quantitative evaluation methodology because of the impersonal aspects of this type of evaluation.

It is my contention that the evaluation of programs designed for staff or organizational renewal necessitate a more personalized methodology. This is why I recommend that staff developers study and utilize qualitative evaluation methodology. Staff development programs have not been self-renewing because educators have not planned a comprehensive evaluation design. A considerable amount of material has been written during the past five years discussing qualitative evaluation, yet little of this information has found its way into educational practice. The scope of this paper prohibits a lengthy discussion of qualitative evaluation, so I will attempt to suggest some of the major elements of this method of evaluation.

Once again, I emphasize the value of personalizing the evaluation of staff development programs. Qualitative methodology contains strategies that are perceived by the staff as more personal in nature. Educational programs are based on humanistic concerns and ideas, and teachers resist quantitative methodology because of the impersonal nature of numbers and scientific data. In evaluating staff development programs, qualitative methods can significantly enhance the usability of the findings because teachers perceive the data as being very personal.

Michael Patton's book titled **Qualitative Evaluation Methods** is an excellent resource for people responsible for evaluating staff development programs. Patton provides a considerable amount of information that describes the nature of qualitative data. A summary of his work reveals the following criteria concerning the quality of qualitative data:

> Qualitative measurement has to do with the kinds of data or information that are collected. Qualitative data consists

> of detailed descriptions of situations, events, people, interventions, and observed behaviors; direct quotations of people about their experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and thoughts; and excerpts or entire passages from documents, correspondence, records and case histories. The data are collected as open-ended narrative without attempting to fit program activities or people's experiences into predetermined, standardized categories such as response choices that comprise typical questionnaires or tests . . . the evaluator using a qualitative approach to measurement seeks to capture what people have to say in their own words. Qualitative measures describe the experiences of people in-depth. The data are open-ended in order to find out what people's lives, experiences and interactions mean to them in their own terms and in natural settings . . . Qualitative data provide depth and detail. Depth and detail emerge through direct quotation and careful description."[44]

Qualitative evaluation is in essence implementation evaluation. It studies the extent to which a program is effective after it is implemented. Patton describes the raw data of qualitative measurement:

> These data are descriptive. The purpose of the description is to take the reader into the setting. The data do not include judgment about whether or not what occurred was good or bad, appropriate or inappropriate or any other interpretative judgments. The data simply describes what has occurred . . . basically, qualitative data consists of quotations from people and descriptions of situations, events, interactions, and activities. One purpose of these data is to understand the points of view and experiences of other persons."[45]

Sociologist Michael Lofland suggests four basic elements in collecting such data that provide us with further insights into the nature of such data. Lofland states:

> First, the qualitative methodologist must get close enough to the people and situation being studied to understand the depth and details of what goes on. Second, the qualitative methodologist must aim at capturing what actually takes place and what people actually say: the perceived facts. Third, qualitative data consists of a great deal of precise description of people, activities, and interactions. Fourth, qualitative data consists of direct quotations from people, both what they speak and what they write down."[46]

Patton and Lofland are imply that one way of evaluating staff

development programs and studying implementation is to gather descriptive data about what the program is doing. Patton suggests that qualitative or implementation evaluation answers the following types of questions:

> What do clients in the program experience? What services are provided to the clients? What do staff do? What is it like to be in the program? How is the program organized?[7]

The nature of qualitative methodology, then, is ideally suited to monitoring and evaluating the implementation of staff development programs. The intent of qualitative data is to provide descriptive information that describes fully what is not or what should be. Qualitative data are aimed at gathering information about the quality of staff development activities, not just levels of achievement.

The appropriateness of qualitative methodology for evaluating staff development programs can be shown by referring to Patton's chart illustrated in appendix B, titled "Checklist of Evaluation Situations For Which Qualitative Methods Are Appropriate."

Qualitative methodology relies heavily on two methods of collecting data: collecting data through observation and collecting data through interviewing. It is not my intent to provide a comprehensive treatment of these elements of qualitative research in this paper; however, it is important to make you aware of the importance of observations in interviewing for the purposes of this paper.

Patton describes the value of observational data when he states:

> First, by directly observing program operations and activities the evaluator is better able to understand the context within which the program operates. Understanding the program context is essential to a holistic perspective.
>
> Second, firsthand experience with a program allows an evaluator to be inductive in approach. In short, the evaluator can directly experience the program as a phenomenon unto itself, thereby making the most of an inductive, discovery-oriented approach.
>
> A third strength of observational methods is that the evaluator has the opportunity to see things that may routinely escape conscious awareness among participants and staff. In order for someone to report information in an interview they must be aware that they have the desired information. Because all social systems involve routines, participants in those routines may take them so much for granted that they cease to be aware of important nuances

that are apparent only to an observer who has not become fully immersed in those routines.

A fourth value of direct observational approaches is the extent to which the evaluator can learn about things program participants and/or staff may be unwilling to talk about in an interview. The sensitivity of some subjects in an interview combined with the interviewer's lack of appreciation for that sensitivity because of lack of experience in the program may make interviewees unwilling to provide information on sensitive topics. Through direct experience with and observation of programs, evaluators can gain information that otherwise would not become available.

A fifth and closely related point is that observations permit the evaluator to move beyond the selective perceptions of others. Interviews present the understandings of the people being interviewed.

Finally, getting close to aprogram through firsthand experience permits the evaluator to access personal knowledge and direct experience as resources to aid in understanding and interpreting the program being evaluated. Reflection and introspection are important parts of field research. The impressions and feelings of the observer become part of the data to be used in attempting to understand the program and its effects.[48]

The value of observational data is that it provides staff development personnel with information that assists in understanding the program. The methods for gathering data are varied and include the following as described by Lofland.

> . . . participant observation, qualitative observation, direct observation or field research. All these terms refer to the circumstance of being in or around an on-going social setting for the purpose of making a qualitative analysis of that setting.[49]

Qualitative interviewing is used by the staff developer who is evaluating the program to find out what is in someone else's mind. Patton reviews the importance of qualitative interviewing when he says:

> The purpose of open-ended interviewing is not to put things in someone's mind but rather to access the perspective of the person being interviewed. We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe. The issue is not whether observational data is more desirable, valid, or meaningful than self-report data.

> The fact of the matter is that we cannot observe everything. We cannot observe feelings, thoughts and intentions. We cannot observe behaviors that took place at some previous point in time. We cannot obseve situations that preclude the presence of an observer. We cannot observe how people have organized the world and the meanings they attach to what goes on in the world — we have to ask people questions about those things. The purpose of interviewing, then, is to allow us to enter into the other person's perspective. The assumption is that perspective is meaningful, knowable, and able to be made explicit. Interview data for program evaluation purposes allow the evaluator to capture the perspective of program participants, staff, and others associated with the program. What does the program look like and feel like to the people involved? What are the experiences of program participants? What thoughts do people knowledgeable about the program have concerning program operations, processes, and outcomes? What do people know about the program? What are their expectations? What features of the program are most salient to the people involved? What changes do participants perceive in themselves as a result of the involvement of the program? It is the responsibility of the evaluator to provide a framework within which people can respond comfortably, accurately, and honestly to these kinds of questions. The task undertaken by the interviewer is to make it possible for the person being interviewed to bring the interviewer into his or her own world. The quality of information obtained during an interview is largely dependent on the interviewer.
>
> Evaluators must learn how to listen when knowledgeable people are talking. That may be the secret of their influence.[10]

There are three basic types of qualitative interviewing utilized in qualitative evaluation methodology. These are:

1. The informal conversational interview.
2. The general interview guide.
3. The standardized open-ended interview.

Each approach has strengths and weaknesses, and it is important to recognize that each strategy has value when used appropriately.

The final stage of qualitative evaluation is the analysis and interpretation of data. It is important to establish a focal point when analyzing and interpreting data. The evaluation report will include the description of the program and the experiences of the people in-

volved in the program. The analysis and utilization of the results should provide the staff developer with relevant and usable information to assist him/her in decision-making.

CONCLUSION

Our present efforts at staff development have taken a haphazard, piecemeal, and disorganized approach, resulting in a negative attitude from teachers regarding staff development programs. In addition, we have not capitalized on one of the effects of declining enrollment — staff stability. With decreasing staff turnover, what is done to improve individual teachers and the educational organization has more chance of lasting then ever before.

This paper attempts to focus on the process of staff development, leaving the design of specific programs open to meet the special needs of each school setting. A vast amount of valuable information has been accumulated relating to staff development that remains unused by educators when planning staff development programs. Unless we utilize this research, we will continue in our haphazard approach to present staff development programs.

I have attempted to present the complex, multidimensional nature of staff development in this paper. Insufficient attention has been given to adult learning, planning, and evaluation up to the present time. In addition, staff developers have not been adequately trained to present and implement programs that will self-renew and maintain professional improvement. Professional growth is a complex, slow-moving human task that requires an understanding of how the adult learns and how to provide a climate that is conducive to learning and organizational change. The five stages of staff development that I have discussed are interrelated and provides the staff developer with a general framework for establishing a climate for real change. The following list summarizes some of the critical aspects of an effective staff development program.

These characteristics are:

1. A supportive, non-threatening climate should be developed that creates trust, support, open communication, and internal commitment.
2. Clear and realistic goals must be established early in the program.
3. School boards and the administration must demonstrate commitment by providing necessary support and resources to conduct the program.
4. Goals, objectives, and procedures must be developed by those participants involved in the program.
5. Needs must be identified and a program developed to ad-

dress discrepancies.

6. The program must contain skills, attitudes, and knowledge to be lasting and effective.
7. Participants should be provided with a variety of options designed to meet the needs and the learning styles of the participants.
8. The activities must coincide with the way adults learn.
9. Programs should be experimentally based, providing opportunities for participants to apply the new learning to classroom situations.
10. People responsible for presenting staff development programs must be highly competent and model the behavior and quality of performance expected of the participants.
11. Leadership of the staff development program should be demonstrated by competence, not position in the organization hierarchy.
12. Qualitative evaluation methodology should be used to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the program and provide information for decision-making.

We need to develop a process that creates a lifelong learning attitude on the part of our teachers. The uniqueness of teachers as learners and the staff situational pressures which affect them must be considered in planning staff renewal.

Footnotes

[1]Louis J. Rubin, **Improving Inservice Education** (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971), p. 245.

[2]James C. King, **et al.** "Some Requirements for Successful Inservice Education," **Phi Delta Kappan** 58 (May, 1977), p. 686.

[3]T. E. Santmire, "Developmental Differences in Adult Learners: Implications for Staff Development," (position paper, 1979): p. 25.

[4]D. E. Hunt, "A Conceptual Systems Change Model and Its Application to Education," in **Experience, Structure, Adaptability,** ed: O. J. Harvey (New York: Harper, Spring, 1966), p. 90.

[5]T. E. Santmire, "Developmental Differences in Adult Learners: Implications for Staff Development," (position paper, 1979): p. 25.

[6]Ibid., p. 43

[7]A. F. Gregorc, "Learning/Teaching Styles: Potent Forces Behind Them," **Educational Leadership** 36 (January, 1979): 234.

[8]A. F. Gregorc and Helen Ward, "Implications for Teaching and Learning — A New Definition of Individual," **NASSP Bulletin** 61 (February, 1977): 23.

[9]Jard De Ville, **Nice Guys Finish First** (New York: Wm. Morrow Co., 1979), p. 41.

[10]Phillip Cusick, **Inside High School** (New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, Inc., 1973), pp. 18-19.

[11]Edward Lindeman, **The Meaning of Adult Education** (New York: New Republic, 1926), p. 113.

[12]Malcolm Knowles, **The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species** (Houston: Gulf Publishing Co., 1981), p. 53.

[13]Ibid., p. 36.

[14]Ibid., p. 44.

[15]Ibid., p. 51.

[16]Ibid., p. 54.

[17]J. E. Hill and D. N. Nunney, **Personalizing Educational Programs Using Cognitive Style Mapping** (Michigan: Oakland Community College, 1971), p. 119.

[18]Malcolm Knowles, **The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species** (Houston: Gulf Publishing Co., 1981), p. 57.

[19]Ibid., p. 58.

[20]Ibid., p. 30.

[21]Ibid., p. 31.

[22]Allen Tough, **The Adult's Learning Projects** (Canada: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1979), p. 151.

[23]John Withall and Fred Wood, "Taking the Threat Out of Classroom and Feedback, "**Journal of Teacher Education** 30

(January-February, 1979): 55-58.

[24]Fred H. Wood, Steven Thompson, and Sister Francis Russell, "Designing Effective Staff Development Programs," **ASCD Yearbook**, ed: B. Peterson. (Alexandria, Va: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1981) pp. 64-65.

[25]Karl Weick, "Educational Organizations as Loosely Coupled Systems," **Administrative Science Quarterly** 21 (March, 1976): 1-18.

[26]John Ingalls, **Human Engergy** (Austin: Learning Concepts, 1979), pp. 144-145.

[27]Ibid, p. 152.

[28]Molcolm Knowles, **The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species** (Houston: Gulf Publishing Co., 1981), p. 91.

[29]R. Beckhard, **Organization Development and Change** (New York: West Publishing Co., 1975), p. 13.

[30]Chris Argyris, **Intervention Theory and Method: A Behavioral Science View** (Reading, MA.: Addison Wesley Publishing Co., 1965), p. 20.

[31]Phyllis Hamilton, **Competency Based Teacher Evaluation** (Menlo Park, CA.: Stanford Research Institute, 1973), p. 4.

[32]J. E. Bryson, "Man's Greatest Dilemma: Our Rapidly Changing Society," paper presented at the 6th Annual Executive Institute, Greensboro, No. Carolina at the University of North Carolina, February, 1973.

[33]Robert Carkhuff, "Helping and Human relations: A Brief Guide for Trainer and Lay Helpers," **Journal of Research and Development in Education** 4 (Winter, 1971): 105.

[34]Bruce Joyce, **et al., Flexibility in Teaching** (New York: Longman, 1980), p. 168.

[35]Ibid., p. 171.

[36]Ibid., p. 173.

[37]Ibid., p. 177.

[38]Ibid., p. 168.

[39]James Coleman, **Differences Between Experiential and Classroom Learning: Rationale, Characteristics, Assessments** (Washington, D.C.: Jersey Bass, 1976), pp. 49-61.

[40]John Ingalls, **Human Energy** (Austin: Learning Concepts, 1979), pp. 144-145.

[41]John Goodlad and Frances M. Klein, et al. **Behind The Classroom Door** (Washington, Ohio: Chas. James Publishers, 1970), p. 111.

[42]Chris Argyris, **Intervention Theory and Method: A Behavioral Science View** (Reading, MA: Addison Wesley Publishing Co., 1965), p. 132.

[45]Warren Bennis, "The Sociology of Institutions on Who Sank the Yellow Submarine," **Psychology Today** (June, 1972): 112-122.

[46]Michael Patton, **Qualitative Evaluation Methods** (Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publishing Co., 1980), p. 22.

[47]Ibid., p. 61.

[48]Michael Lofland, **Analyzing Social Settings** (Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, 1971), p. 4.

[49]Michael Patton, **Qualitative Evaluation Methods** (Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publishing Co., 1980), pp. 126-127.

[50]Ibid., p. 128.

[51]Ibid., p. 129.

[52]Ibid., p. 131.

Bibliography

Argyris, Chris. **Intervention Theory and Method: A Behavioral Science View.** Reading, MA: Addison Wesley Publishing Co., 1965.

Beckhard, R. **Organization Development and Change.** New York: West Publishing Co., 1975.

Bennis, Warren. "The Sociology of Institutions on Who Sank the Yellow Submarine." **Psychology Today** 6 (June, 1974): 112-122.

Bryson, J. E. "Man's Greatest Dilemma: Our Rapidly Changing Society." (a paper presented at the 6th Annual Executive Institute, Greensboro, No. Carolina at the University of North Carolina, February, 1973).

Carkhuff, Robert. "Helping and Human Relations: A Brief Guide for Trainer and Lay Helpers." **Journal of Research and Development in Education** 4 (Winter, 1971): 105.

Coleman, James. **Differences Between Experiential and Classroom Learning: Rationale, Characteristics, Assessment.** Washington, D.C.: Jersey Bass, 1976.

Cusick, Phillip. **Inside High School.** New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, Inc., 1973.

De Ville, Jard. **Nice Guys Finish First.** New York: Wm. Morrow Co., 1979.

Gregorc, A. F. "Learning/Teaching Styles: Potent Forces Behind Them." **Educational Leadership** 36 (January, 1979): 234.

Gregorc, A. F. and Ward, Helen. "Implications for Teaching and Learning — A New Definition of Individual." **NASSP Bulletin** 61 (February, 1977): 23.

Goodlad, John and Klein, Frances M., **et al. Behind the Classroom Door.** Washington, Ohio: Chas. James Publishers, 1970.

Hamilton, Phyllis. **Competency Based Teacher Evaluation.** Menlo Park, CA.: Stanford Research Institute, 1973.

Hill, J. E. and Nunney, D. N. **Personalizing Educational Programs Using Cognitive Style Mapping.** Michigan: Oakland Community College, 1971.

Hunt, D. E. "A Conceptual Systems Change Model and Its Application to Education." **Experience, Structure, Adaptability** (Spring, 1966): 90.

Ingalls, John. **Human Energy.** Austin: Learning Concepts, 1979.

Joyce, Bruce, **et al. Flexibility in Teaching.** New York: Logman, 1980.

King, James C., **et al.** "Some Requirements for Successful Inservice Education." **Phi Delta Kappan** 58 (May, 1977), 686-687.

Knowles, Malcolm. **The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species.** Houston: Gulf Publishing Co., 1981.

Lindeman, Edward. **The Meaning of Adult Education.** New York: New Republic, 1926.

Lofland, Michael. **Analyzing Social Settings.** Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, 1971.

Patton, Michael. **Qualitative Evaluation Methods.** Beverly Hills, CA.: Sage Publishing Co., 1980.

Rubin, Louis J. **Improving Inservice Education.** Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971.

Santmire, T. E. "Developmental Differences in Adult Learners: Implications for Staff Development," position paper, 1979, p. 25.

Tough, Allen. **The Adult's Learning Projects.** Canada: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1979.

Weick, Karl. "Educational Organizations as Loosely Coupled Systems." **Administrative Science Quarterly** 21 (March, 1976): 1-18.

Withall, John and Wood, Fred. "Taking the Threat Out of Classroom Evaluation and Feedback." **Journal of Teacher Education** (January-February, 1979): 55-58.

Wood, Fred H; Thompson, Steven; and Russell, Sister Francis. "Designing Effective Staff Development Programs." **ASCD Yearbook.** Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1981: pgs. 64-65.

APPENDIX A[1]

Characteristics of Adult Learners	Implications for Adult Learners
Self-concept: The adult learner sees himself as capable of self-direction and desires others to see him the same way. In fact, one definition of maturity is the capacity to be self-directing.	A climate of openness and respect is helpful in identifying what the learners want and need to learn. Adults enjoy planning and carrying out their own learning exercises. Adults need to be involved in evaluating their own progress toward self chosen goals.
Experience: Adults bring a lifetime of experience to the learning situation. Youths tend to regard experience as something that has happened to them, while to an adult, his experience is him. The adult defines who he is in terms of his experience.	Less use is made of transmittal techniques; more of experiential techniques. Discovery of how to learn from experience is key to self-actualization. Mistakes are opportunitites for learning. To reject adult experience is to reject the adult.
Readiness to learn: Adult developmental tasks increasingly move toward social and occupational role competence and away from the more physical developmental tasks of childhood.	Adults need opportunities to identify the competency requirements of their occupational and social roles. Adult readiness to learn and teachable moments peak at those points where a learning opportunity is coordinated with a recognition of the need to know. Adults can best identify their own readiness to learn and teachable moments.
A problem-centered time perspective: Youth thinks of education as the accumulation of knowledge for use in the future. Adults tend to think of learning as a way to be more ef-	Adult education needs to be problem-centered rather than theoretically oriented. Formal curriculum development is less valuable than finding out what the learners need

fective in problem solving today.

to learn.
Adults need the opportunity to apply new learning quickly.

Implications for Facilitators or Teachers of Adults

Facilitators recognize adults as self-directing and treat them accordingly.

The facilitator is a learning reference for adult learners rather than a traditional instructor; facilitators are, therefore, encouraged to "tell it like it is" and stress "how I do it" rather than tell participants what they should do.

The facilitator avoids talking down to adult learners, who are usually experienced decision makers and self-starters. The facilitator instead tries to meet the learners' needs.

As the adult is his experience, failure to utilize the experience of the adult learner is equivalent to rejecting him as a person.

Learning occurs through helping adults with the identification of gaps in their knowledge.

No questions are "stupid"; all questions are "opportunities" for learning.

The primary emphasis in adult learning is on learners learning rather than on teachers teaching.

Involvement in such things as problems to be solved, case histories and critical incidents generally offer greater learning opportunity for adults than "talking to" them or using other one way transmittal techniques.

[1]John Ingalls, **Human Energy** (Austin: Learning Concepts, 1979), p. 49.

APPENDIX B[1]

CHECKLIST OF EVALUATION SITUATIONS FOR WHICH QUALITATIVE METHODS ARE APPROPRIATE

1. Does the program emphasize individualized outcomes, i.e., different participants are expected to be affected in qualitatively different ways? And is there a need or desire to describe and evaluate these individualized client outcomes? Yes No

2. Are decision makers interested in elucidating and understanding the internal dynamics of programs — program strengths, program weaknesses, and overall program processes? Yes No

3. Is detailed in-depth information needed about certain client cases or program sites, e.g., particularly successful cases; unusual failures; critically important cases for programmatic, financial or political reasons? Yes No

4. Is there interest in focusing on the diversity among, idiosyncracies of and unique qualities exhibited by individual clients or programs (as opposed to comparing all clients or programs on standardized, uniform measures)? Yes No

5. Is information needed about the details of program implementation — what clients in the program experience, what services are provided to clients, how the program is organized, what staff do, and basically inform decision makers as to what is going on in the program and how it has developed? Yes No

6. Are program staff and other decision makers interested in the collection of detailed, descriptive information about the program for the purpose of improving the program, i.e., is there interest in the formative evaluation? Yes No

7. Is there a need for information about the nuances of program quality, i.e., descriptive information about the quality of program activities and outcomes, not just levels, amounts, or quantities of program activity and outcomes? Yes No

8. Will the administration of standardized measuring instruments (questionnaires and tests) be overly obtrusive in contrast to the gathering of data through natural observations and open-ended interviews, i.e., will the collection of qualitative data generate less reactivity among participants than the collection of quantitative data? Yes No

9. Is the state of measurement science such that no valid, reliable, and believable standardized instrument is available or readily capable of being developed to measure the particular program outcomes for which data are needed? Yes No

10. Are legislators or other decision makers/funders interested in having evaluators conduct program site visits such that the evaluators become the surrogate eyes and ears for decision makers who are too busy to make such site visits themselves and who lack the observing and listening skills of trained evaluators? Yes No

11. Are the goals of the program vague, general, and nonspecific, indicating the possible advantage of a goal-free evaluation approach to gather information about what effects the program is actually having? Yes No

12. Is there the possibly that the program may be affecting clients or participants in unanticipated ways and/or having unexpected side effects, indicating the need for a method of inquiry that can discover effects beyond those formally stated as desirable by program staff (again, an indication of the need for some form of goal-free evaluation)? Yes No

13. Has the collection of quantitative evaluation data become so routine that no one pays much attention to the results anymore, suggesting a possible need to break the old routine and use new methods to generate new insights about the program? Yes No

14. Is there a need and desire to personalize the evaluation process by using research methods that require personal, face-to-face contact with the program — methods that may be perceived as "humanistic" and personal because participants are not preordinately labeled and numbered, and methods that feel natural, informal, and understandable to participants? Yes No

15. Do decision makers and information users have philosophical or methodological biases that lead them to prefer qualitative methods, thus increasing the likelihood that they will find the results of a qualitative evaluation particularly believable, credible, understandable, and useful? Yes No

16. Are decision makers and evaluators interested in in-

creasing their understanding of the program by developing a grounded theory of program actions and effects that is inductively derived from a holistic picture of the program? Yes No

[1]Michael Patton, **Qualitative Evaluation Method** (Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publishing Co., 1980), pp. 107-108.

APPENDIX C

IASCD OCCASIONAL PAPER STUDY GUIDE — STAFF RENEWAL —

I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this section of the paper is to provide essential information to the reader on the nature of the adult learner. To plan and implement effective staff development programs, one needs to be aware of a number of facts related to adult learning. At the present time we give insufficient attention to the distinctive qualities of adult learning; what they want to learn; how they learn; and how they prefer to learn.

This section of the paper focuses on the following:

* Hunt and Santmire — Adult Development
* Gregorc — Learning Styles
* De Ville — Personality Styles
* Knowles — Andragogy
* Lindeman — Adult Education
* Tough — Adult Learning Projects
* Withall and Wood — Adult Learning

II. STAGE I — READINESS

The purpose of this section of the paper discusses the paramount importance of establishing the proper organizational climate for conducting self-renewing staff development programs.

This section of the paper focuses on the following:

* Wood, Thompson, Russell — School Climate
* Wieck — Loose Coupling Theory
* Webers — Ideal Bureaucracy
* Ingalls — Psychological Climate
* Knowles — Educational Organizations

III. STAGE II — PLANNING

Poor planning and organization of staff development programs have resulted in a negative attitude on the part of teachers in regard to staff development. The needs of adult learners must be converted into staff development objectives.

This section of the paper focuses on the following:

* Beckhard — Organizational Development
* Argyris — Self-Renewal
* Beckhard — Organizational Development Strategies
* Hamilton — Competency Staff Development
* Carkhuff — Helper Relationship

IV. STAGE III — TRAINING

The training component of staff development relies on developing programs that relate to knowledge, skills, and attitudes. The primary components of training that have been neglected are: 1) presentation of a theory; 2) modeling; 3) practice; 4) feedback, and 5) coaching.

This section of the paper focuses on the following:

* Joyce and Showers — Training Components
* Coleman — Experiental Learning
* Ingalls — Adult Learning

V. STAGE IV — IMPLEMENTATION

One of the primary shortcomings of staff development programs is that the new learning seldom finds its way into the classroom and when it does it is not sustained for a long period of time. Implementation is closely related to change theory or altering the status quo.

This section of the paper focuses on the following:

* Goodlad — Implementation
* Argyris — Internal Commitment
* Bennis — Organizational change

VI. STAGE V — EVALUATION

Evaluation in education is a most delicate issue. Evaluation programs for staff development activities have been conducted at a superficial level. To be effective, the evaluation of staff development programs must be personalized. The qualitative evaluation methodology contains the elements of evaluation that connote a personal character. Since staff development is concerned with the maximizing of human potential, an evaluative strategy that focuses on the individual is critical.

This section of the paper focuses on the following:

* Patton — Qualitative Evaluation Methods
* Patton — Qualitative Observations
* Patton — Qualitative Interviewing
* Lofland — Collection of Data
* Lofland — Value of Observational Data

VII. CONCLUSION

This section of the paper focuses on the multidimensional practice of staff development programs. Each of the five stages are interrelated and staff developers must direct their attention to each stage to develop a self-renewing, lifelong learning environment.